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ABSTRACT

The articles in this journal address aspects of the general theme, "Development of the Teaching Profession," and report on research in brain dominance and certification practices. The following articles are in the theme features section: (1) "Collecting Garbage, Driving Trucks, and Waiting Tables: The Economic Reality of Teaching" (David Bell and Patricia B. Roach); (2) "The Texas Experiment" (Stephen E. Daniels and Larry L. Kraus); (3) "Methods and Models of Professional Knowledge" (Jerry A. Ligon); (4) "Can Professionalism Be Taught?" (Nancy Lee Cecil and Kay Moore; (5) "Minimum Competency Standards in Teacher Education: Should There Be Exceptions?" (Virginia L. Pearson); (6) "Teaching as a Researching Profession" (Violet Auselmini Allain); and (7) "A Model for the Governance of University-Wide Teacher Education" (Richard E. Ishler, Sandra Longfellow-Robinson, and Peter J. Larson). The two research reports are: "The Relationship between Measures of Brain Dominance and Perceived Communication Variables among Student Teachers and Their Cooperating Teachers" (Nancy Pietraszkiewicz); and "Certification Practices in the U.S.: A Status Report" (Donald W. Jones). The journal also contains a book review, messages from the presidents of the organizations, and editors' pages. (JD)

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THE JOURNAL

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MESSAGES FROM THE PRESIDENTS

I have just returned from a visit in the beautiful state of Minnesota. On quiet morning there, I happened upon a magazine on teaching. As I skimmed through the articles, the term student teacher caught my eye. Noting the name of the article, "Revising the Perspective,"* I began to read. However, I soon realized the article had nothing to do with student teachers as we use the term. Rather, it referred to the students in Ms. Taube de Baun's fifth-grade class.

Ms. Taube de Baun's approach to teaching social studies includes something we have all done at one time or another, namely, having students report on small research topics to the rest of the class. However, what is unique here is the requirement Ms. Taube de Baun's students must meet in preparing to report. Students develop a lesson plan with follow-up questions, design study sheets listing questions and terms important to the topic, and give a written quiz covering the material they present.

As I contemplated this activity, the term student teacher began to take on a whole new meaning. I realized not only the impact Ms. Taube de Baun's approach to social studies was having on her class but the impact she could be having on the future teaching profession. I imagined the impact on the teaching profession if students began having these types of experiences in the fifth grade and continued to have them through high school.

Continue to imagine, if you will, what it would be like having these same students in education classes, realizing that they are there because they understand the act of teaching and are pursuing the profession of teaching because they truly want to be teachers. Imagine!

---

* Karin Taube de Baun (1990, August-September), Revising the perspective, Teaching PreK-8, 21(1):38.

Susan F. Pullman

President
Ohio Association of Teacher Educators

As an organization of teacher educators, we are continually concerned with the methods and manner of our profession. Teaching is complex and controversial and not yet fully understood. We know the issues of preparation and practice and, sometimes, we know the solutions. We recognize that it is a time for evaluation. It is also a time to find new practices for the reformation needed in teacher education.

The articles in this issue are helpful as we reflect, question, try out and evaluate present practices. Most teachers seek opportunities to improve their own levels of professional practice. The role of teacher educators is to develop habits of reflection and carry out planned change.

However, there is something more that challenges us as teacher educators. That something is the *spirit* of our profession. Now, as never before, teaching is stressful. While we read about the conflicts of practice, we must learn to communicate with each other about the *experiences* of teaching. We need to express our thoughts and views about teaching. It will only be through this exchange of ideas that practice will be remade.

What motivates you? What influences you? What are your concepts of effectiveness? The Michigan Association is seeking to stay on the cutting edge of teacher education. We are speaking out on issues that will confront all of us in the 90's. Not only is this dialogue essential for necessary change in our profession, but it is our responsibility as professionals to make it happen!

Jo-Ann Snyder

President
Michigan Association of Teacher Educators

Pursuing Professionalization: Principles, Practices, Preparation, Politics and Problems

It is a time of exciting and energetic change in teaching, change in pursuit of continuing professionalization of teaching. Begun earlier in this century, professionalization of teaching raises expectations and questions for all concerned.

What professional principles undergird teaching? What unique principles of knowledge describe teaching and prescribe what teachers must know? How is our professional knowledge base created?. . . codified?. . . disseminated? Does it make a difference in practice?

What are the institutional dimensions of teaching? What is its history? What is the nature of a career in teaching? What do teachers and teaching careers look like today? How might they look in the future? What are the determinants of career? Why is there a need for teacher empowerment?

What is required of professional preparation? How should professional candidates be recruited, admitted for preparation, nurtured, tested, credentialed, inducted? What alternatives are there? What are the implications of the professional development school? What is the value of field experiences in preparation? What is the role of national certification? What models for induction seem most promising?

What are the politics of professionalization? Where should professional authority and accountability be vested? What is the role of the individual professional in shaping the future of teaching? What is the role of the teacher union? . . . the school district? . . colleges and universities? . . . the state? . . . NCATE? . . . a national board? . . . the politicians? . . . the public? . . . the private sector? How should the profession be governed?

What problems of professionalization have already been addressed adequately? What problems remain? What problems of related principles, practice, preparation and politics attend continuing professionalization in teaching?

Bell and Roach's opening article confronts the continuing economic reality in teaching. Daniels and Kraus offer a report of one state's current experimentation in teacher education.

Ligon offers a thoughtful rationale for the methods of teaching as essential to our professional knowledge base. C[illegible] Moore describe a model for teaching professionalism. Pearson examin[illegible] interesting facet of teacher certification minimums.

Allain links researching to teaching in the context of inservice and graduate education. Ishler et al. describe a model for teacher education governance for university-wide programs. Jones presents a status report on some certification issues.

In a research section, Pietraszkiewicz reports on a relationship between brain dominance and communication styles among cooperating teachers.

Jim Gress

Co-Editor
Ohio Association of
Teacher Educators

Brad West

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Michigan Association
of Teacher Educators

Collecting Garbage, Truck Driving, And Waiting Tables: The Economic Reality Of Teaching?

David Bell and Patricia B. Roach
Arkansas Tech University

As the world moves toward the 21st century, the United States is once again frustrated with its educational system. The National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) told us that our nation was at risk and that our once unchallenged preeminence in commerce, industry, science, and technological innovation is being overtaken by competitors throughout the world. Although many states have initiated new standards, career ladders, and other incentives to increase teacher and student productivity, few have seriously addressed teacher professionalism and the economic reality of teaching.

Teaching in America's schools is, for many, a part-time job. In some areas of the nation, especially in the poorest states and districts where salaries are lowest, teachers are forced to hold second jobs in order to survive. Although multiple job holding, or moonlighting, has not been widely studied among educators, it does appear to be a common practice and one that historically has been both expected and accepted by the public. Elsbvree (1939) states, "The public has always looked upon school teaching as a part-time job" (p. 162). Unfortunately, the public perception of teachers as part-time workers continues to exist, and it is reflected in part-time salaries.

Teachers lead most occupational groups in multiple job holdings. Nationwide, almost 20% of teachers hold second jobs (Flaim, 1986). Although few recent studies have been conducted, those which have provide a very gloomy picture of the

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schedules of teachers in selected geographic areas of the nation. Although the limited literature dealing with teachers as multiple job holders is consistent, the need for broad economic reform has been unheeded. Public expectations of teachers have increased dramatically in the last few years as a result of the new wave of school improvement studies, but the overall economic condition of teachers appears to have changed little. The emphasis on new educational standards and greater educational achievement underscores the importance of viewing teachers as professionals and not as part-time workers. Obviously, teachers who are forced to moonlight are viewed by the public as less than professional.

Arkansas Study

Arkansas has consistently held the 49th or 50th position in teacher salaries among the states. Because of this position, it seems likely that many Arkansas teachers would be involved in moonlighting activities. A study was undertaken, therefore, to determine how many teachers were working second jobs and the types of jobs which were providing extra income for these teachers.

A 33-item instrument was developed, including items related to demographics, moonlighting activities, and perceptions of teachers toward those activities. Moonlighting activities were grouped into two categories, jobs associated with the school and jobs outside the school. Using the Arkansas Education Directory, a random sample of school districts from the 76 Arkansas counties was surveyed. School districts from 23 counties responded to the survey instrument and 1,546 usable instruments were returned. This represented 30% of the counties and provided a well-balanced geographic representation of the state. No follow-up survey was conducted.

Of the 1,546 teachers who responded to the survey, 82% were female and 18% were male. The majority of the teachers were married (74%). Although the study indicated that a large majority of the respondents had spouses who worked (89%), few of the spouses were teachers (18%). Approximately two-thirds of the sample (67%) were less than 40-years of age. The average teacher responding to the survey was a married female less than 40 years old, earning a yearly salary less than $18,000.

Thirty-eight percent of Arkansas teachers hold second jobs. Although a large percentage of Arkansas teachers moonlight, indications are that this percentage would be much greater if additional jobs were available. Fifty-one percent of those not moonlighting indicated a need or desire to work when asked, "If you do not work now, would you work if you could find a job?" Seventy percent currently work second jobs or wish to work. For many Arkansas teachers, the decision to work at a second job is not one of personal choice but one of economic necessity. Of all teachers holding second jobs, 88% work because of economic necessity, and 12% work for personal fulfillment. The amount of money that those working earn was very small. Eighty-one percent reported an outside annual income of less than $5000. The amount of time spent in earning the extra income varied widely. Most (71%) of the teachers worked a maximum of twenty hours per week moonlighting; another 25% worked 25 to 40 hours and 4% worked more than 40 hours. For most teachers, the regular work schedule is approximately 7 to 7 1/2 hours a day. Club sponsors, parent conferences, special school events and other school-related activities often require the teacher to work as many as 50 hours each week. In addition, the Arkansas teacher who moonlights may work an additional 15 to 40 hours each week.

Arkansas' moonlighting teachers are involved in a great variety of jobs, very few of which are actually tied to their primary vocation. The jobs reported by teachers within the school include bus driving (27%), advising school club activities (20%), tutoring (19%) and coaching (17%). Major jobs mentioned outside of school included sales (27%), cleaning service (10%), typing or accounting (7%), and a variety of others. These latter jobs included garbage collecting, truck driving, and waiting tables in restaurants. Most of the jobs pay a minimum wage.

Other out-of-school incomes supplement teaching incomes. These were related to farms, rental property and small business. Fifty-nine percent of the teachers reported farm-related income, another 22% indicated that they derived income from rental property as owners or caretakers, and 19% listed other ownerships or small business.

Most Arkansas teachers who responded to the survey (62%) did not believe that working a second job lowered their prestige nor did it cause the majority of moonlighters (51%) to become dissatisfied with teaching. But when asked, "Does your second job better qualify you to teach?" almost all (96%) disagreed. In response to the question, "Does the second job make you more appreciative of teaching?" 57% said no, 20% said yes, and 23% expressed no opinion. Sixty-nine percent believed that working a second job did not jeopardize teaching performance evaluation, and most (90%) believed that working a second job caused them no other difficulty with school boards. Moonlighting is an economic reality for many teachers in Arkansas.

For many teachers who hold second jobs, the work week consists of seventy to eighty hours. Legislative mandates have added extra hours to the school day, extra days to the school year, and greater accountability. However, no additional funds have been made available for teachers salaries. As long as teachers continue to work at nonprofessional wages, it is questionable whether teaching can move toward further professionalization. Professionals need time to read, study and reflect. A teacher who works 70-plus hours per week is unable to serve the profession in a meaningful way. If teachers are to become true professionals, teachers must have relief from unrealistic salaries.

The positive solution to the problems presented is to develop a strong profession with higher levels of responsibility and compensation. Teachers must take greater responsibility in decision-making concerning the curriculum, teaching methodology, working conditions, and professional accountability. Appropriate compensation must allow the teacher to live at least as well as the garbage collector, truck driver or waiter and waitress.

We realize that money alone will not solve our educational problems. However, until we are willing to pay teachers adequate salaries which allow them time to read, study and reflect, we really do not know the truth of that statement. Moonlighting at low paying, menial work does not enhance the image, nor the self-esteem, of the teacher or the teaching profession. State legislation will not be the solution. Strong professional commitment within a strong organization must emerge. Teaching in America's schools is much too important to be viewed as a part-time job. Perceptions and practices must change. Moonlighting should not be an economic necessity for teachers.

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The Texas Experiment

Stephen E. Daniels and Larry L. Kraus
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Texans are proud people. Slightly over ten years ago, they were jolted as they read a scathing indictment of teacher preparation in their state in the chic, slick Texas Monthly that every upscale Texan reads. Gene Lyon's feature article, "Why Teachers Can't Teach," along with a full-color cover photograph of a teacher at her desk captioned, "Caution: This Person Could Be Hazardous to Your Children," attracted readers with this bold introductory summary (Lyons, 1979, p. 123):

> ...because they don't know anything. Teacher education is a massive fraud. It drives out dedicated people, rewards incompetence, and wastes millions of dollars. Our taxes pay for it all, but our children pay the real price.

This lengthy article condemned educationalists and their monopoly on the preparation of teachers, citing semester credit hours, grade point averages, ACT/SAT scores, course syllabi and other selective data. Much of the blame was directed toward certification requirements which, Lyons claimed, forced prospective teachers to focus on the how rather than the what of the classroom act.

Certainly, Lyons was not the first to criticize the preparation of classroom teachers. The amount of pedagogical preparation for prospective teachers has long been a point of controversy within the academic community (Emans, 1989, Summer). When the amount comes into question, the challenge of the value of pedagogical preparation is implicit. The fields of battle for this controversy range from national study group reports to shoot-outs between arts and sciences and education faculties in university curriculum committees.

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Larry L. Kraus is professor and chair, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, The University of Texas at Tyler.

Today, the behavioral sciences play a greater role in teacher preparation as a research driven knowledge base has developed. Within colleges of education, applications of the behavioral sciences are assuming a greater role in pedagogical coursework. Until recently, the critics of teacher education were becoming more conciliatory and cooperative, willing to work with us (Orlonsky, 1988, p. 7). This view is reflected in two recommendations issued within the past five years. A strong case was made for strengthening both the liberal arts and the professional preparation of teachers in A Nation Prepared Teachers for the 21st Century (1986) and in Tomorrow's Teachers (1986). Both recommend academic majors for prospective teachers, a fifth year for professional education, and a well-organized induction program.

Texas had already achieved widespread acclaim in school reform with the enactment of House Bill 72 in 1984. The Select Committee on Public Education, chaired by H. Ross Perot, developed and successfully lobbied for a comprehensive reform of elementary and secondary education. Governor Mark White employed the same strategy to study higher education in Texas although, in naming appointees to the Select Committee on Higher Education, White stated that higher education needed only fine tuning (Funkhouser, 1988).

Beginning in late 1985, the blue ribbon panel on higher education began to conduct hearings and collect information. Interestingly, a regional report on teacher education seems to have had an extraordinary impact on this panel. The Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) had conducted a comparative examination of transcripts of education and arts and sciences graduates in the fifteen Southern states for the 1982-1983 academic year (SREB, 1986A). The SREB study concluded that the education graduates were weaker in general education coursework, took less coursework in the academic areas, and took excessive coursework in education and pedagogy beyond minimum certification requirements.

Based on these findings, the SREB developed and released a series of some 25 recommendations for improving teacher preparation. Among the recommendations was a call for more upper level coursework in the academic disciplines, or even an academic major, for those seeking elementary certification. Though the final report (SREB, 1986B) did not recommend abandoning the traditional certification routes, it did urge seeking alternative models.

The final report of the Select Committee on Higher Education was issued as the legislative session opened in January, 1987. The report contained many recommendations for higher education, mostly fine tuning as suggested by the governor. In the arena of teacher preparation, the only professional program to be singled out, eleven recommendations were made. Most of the recommendations relate to recruitment, loans, and evaluation of teachers. But three could have serious implications for teacher education.:

1. That candidates for teacher certification be required to obtain a baccalaureate degree with a major in one or more academic fields.

2. That undergraduate requirements for professional teacher education not extend beyond the quantitative equivalent of the typical minor.

3. That the amount and quantity of field clinical training be increased substantially for teacher certification candidates upon receiving an academic degree.

Senator Carl Parker, Chairman of the Senate Education Committee and member of the Select Committee on Higher Education, introduced Senate Bill 994 in the 70th session of the Texas Legislature. The major components of the bill included the elimination of undergraduate degrees and majors in education, an 18-semester hour limitation on undergraduate coursework in education that may be applied toward certification, the creation of an induction program, a teacher recruitment program, and provisions for research centers to study teaching and learning.

What impact this will have on the quality of teachers is unknown. While many commissions have issued reports suggesting that the number of professional education courses be reduced, or that teacher education be moved to post-graduate status, little evidence exists to show that making either move will decrease the quality of new teachers. No substantive studies indicating qualitative differences between traditional teacher education programs and these new approaches have been conducted.

Many in Texas feel that the provisions of S.B. 994 will impact far more on the quality of teacher preparation for prospective elementary teachers than for those receiving secondary certification. In Texas, the preparation for elementary teachers has traditionally stressed breadth, as opposed to the secondary programs which have traditionally stressed depth. For those seeking elementary certification, the requirements of S.B. 994 seem to reduce the amount of coverage across disciplines in favor of depth within one or two disciplines.

The primary problems in elementary preparation, however, occur in areas of high demand. Rules adopted by the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board to implement the provisions of the legislation prevent students from having teaching specializations featuring any combination of early childhood education, special education, or reading. If public schools are questioned, however, having individuals certified in two or more of these areas is generally identified as a strong need.

Other actions by the Coordinating Board have, in effect, redefined the areas of physical education, early childhood education, and special education, removing from them the expected focus on providing specialized instruction. Courses in early childhood education must, according to the rule, be primarily courses in child development. Likewise, special education courses must have a strong psychological base, with minimal emphasis on how to teach the special learner. Coursework in physical education must now reflect content that is primarily related to kinesiology. The teaching of reading was spared these changes by being specifically exempted in the legislation. Reading courses can continue to concentrate on teaching methods. Any course content reflecting a more traditional approach to physical education, early childhood education, or special education will, by rule, be counted toward the eighteen semester hour limit established by the legislation.

Clearly, the statutory provisions of S.B. 994 will have an impact on the quality of new teachers. How profound this impact is, and whether it is positive or negative, will only be known with the passage of time. What is scary is that the Legislature of the State of Texas is willing to do wholesale experimentation on such a large scale. If the legislation results in a profound, negative impact, a whole generation of students may be subjected to teachers who are less than adequately prepared than before. Of course, the legislation could also have a positive influence, which would give our profession cause to rethink what we do. In either case, the actions of the Texas Legislature represent a major gamble, with little empirical evidence to serve as a guide.

Perhaps the most significant change will be in the area of academic governance. While legislatures and state agencies have always influenced academic programs, these influences generally have been minimal. The actions of the Texas Legislature, however, directly confront the idea that experienced professionals are in the best position to determine the needs of inductees. Teacher educators were minimally consulted while S.B. 994 was being drafted, and their input resulted in little or no change in the legislation. More alarming, however, was the fact that university administrators and other university personnel have shown little or no support for teacher education programs.

Finally, S. B. 994 has major implications for accountability in the field of teacher education. According to the legislation, teacher education programs are now to be evaluated on the basis of the performance of graduates on the state-mandated Examination for Certification of Entering Teachers (ExCET) and by performance on the Texas Teacher Appraisal System (TTAS). When these evaluative criteria are coupled with the 18-hour limitation, with no consideration given to the unique circumstances of the particular school being evaluated, major problems can be predicted.

For better or worse, Texas has often served as a bellweather of things to come nationally. If this carriers over into teacher education, the implications could be far-reaching. Because this was a wholesale change, not based on empirical evidence, we will have to wait to ascertain the outcomes. Other states might want to wait until data are available from the Texas experiment before rushing into similar changes. Meanwhile, we in Texas can only hope that the quality of teachers in Texas schools will not be compromised.

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Methods And Models As Professional Knowledge

Jerry A. Ligon
Eastern Illinois University

Central to the education of professional teachers is development of a body of knowledge concerning professional practices. Just as teachers need to have knowledge about the content they teach, about educational ends and purposes, and about their students (Shulman, 1987), teachers also need to know and be able to use a wide variety of instructional methods. Instructional methods are the means by which teachers teach content and help students achieve educational goals and objectives.

Curiously, one of the most maligned aspects of teacher education is professional methods courses. This aspect of teacher education is criticized by teachers as being too restrictive (Johnston, 1984) and by others as being emphasized at the expense of preparation in content areas (A Nation at Risk, 1983). Yet, Socrates, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Herbart, and Dewey all viewed methods as a key to educational effectiveness (Broudy, 1963).

Perhaps part of the disparagement of methods is a result of the inconclusive search for the best methods. In 1959, for example, a team commissioned to review research on effective teaching found that no one best instructional method necessarily enhanced instructional effectiveness (Combs, Bluem, Newman & Wass, 1974). Along this same line, a 1968 review of college teaching methods and student achievement found 51 percent favored the lecture method but almost as many (49 percent) favored the discussion method (Gage, 1972).

After findings like these, the search for the best method was abandoned in favor of research on specific teacher behaviors that might be associated with effective teaching. This process-product paradigm identified a host of specific teaching behaviors such as teacher clarity, lesson opening, modeling and feedback. The closest this paradigm came to a best method of teaching is in the direct instruction and active teaching models of instruction (Shulman, 1986). However, if there were thoughts of direct instruction's becoming a best method, they were abandoned when direct instruction was found not to be as effective as it might be when prior knowledge of the learner interfered or when analyzing the meaning of reading was required (Anderson, 1989). This latter finding was a result of research from a cognitive-mediational paradigm that characterizes learners as active, constructive problem-solvers and focuses on teacher-student interactions (Anderson, 1989a; 1989b).

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When applied to teaching, the cognitive perspective points to teaching's complexity. Using a cognitive perspective, Doyle (1986) described the complexity of teaching in terms of multidimensionality, simultaneity, immediacy, unpredictability, publicness, and history. It is precisely because of the complexity of teaching that methods and models of teaching should be considered essential professional knowledge. According to Carter and Doyle (1987, p. 148):

> *The concept of task is useful here. Task calls attention to three basic dimensions of action-situation relationships: (1) a goal state or end product to be achieved; (2) a problem space or set of conditions and resources available to research the goal state; and (3) the operations involved in assembling and using available resources.*

Teachers must "organize groups of students, establish rules and procedures, elicit students' cooperation in classroom activities, and sustain order for designated blocks of time across several months" (p. 148). Instructional methods offer a way to bring some order to this incredibly complex situation.

Method comes from a Greek root that "literally means a way, or a path, of transit" (Buchler, 1961, p. 36). Methods apparently were created because humans were overwhelmed by the complexity of certain tasks. Methods are applied in complex situations, such as classroom settings, and provide a useful means of control or power. Indeed, a common expression is "the power of a method" (Buchler, 1961, p. 101).

Methods have two parts: (1) an activity and (2) a goal. The activity is the recognizable way to something in order to achieve some goal. Because a plan is recognizable, it can be practiced, and a person can become better at it by following the procedure set forth in the plan (Buchler, 1961). Indeed, one way of viewing a method "is simply a plan that you use twice" (Newell & Simon, 1972, p. 835). Through learning and practicing a method, behavior comes organized to "bear a rational relation to solving a problem" (Newell & Simon, 1972, p. 835).

In professional education, method covers both strategies and tactics of teaching and "refers to the formal structure of a sequence of acts commonly denoted by instruction" (Broudy, 1963, p. 3). It is also a model. Instructional methods help teachers solve problems through organizing instructional tasks to achieve education aims, i.e., to help students learn. Instructional methods are concerned with the ways teachers organize instruction, subject matter, and teaching materials to reach teaching objectives. Like models of teaching, they provide guidelines for designing educational activities and environments (Clark & Starr, 1976; Joyce, 1978). Viewed in this light, instructional methods are part of the specialized knowledge base of professional teachers concerned with professional practice.

To disparage instructional methods simply because they are methods, as Buchler (1961) has suggested, seems "on the surface, to mean defense of purposelessness, and of the eccentric position that floundering may be better than planning" (p. 161). To disparage instructional methods because teaching is complex and schools and situations differ is to overlook the role they play in "ordering knowledge and accounting for ambiguities in passages or situations" (Carter & Doyle, 1987, p. 149). A well-developed schemata of methods can provide a framework for structuring and interpreting instruction. Just as the sentence "Michael entered a restaurant" allows the reader "to infer what is

likely to happen" (p. 149), the sentence "Ms. Jones lead a discussion about Moby Dick" ought to tell teachers and students alike what likely happened.

One mark of a profession is a long period of socialization into the knowledge and skills of that profession. Such is the case with instructional methods. It takes many hours of study and observation to learn about an instructional method and upward of 15 to 20 practice attempts with feedback to be able to use it fluidly and appropriately (Joyce and Showers, 1983). The problem with methods courses may not be too much emphasis on theory but, instead, that not enough time is allotted in teacher education programs for students to learn theory adequately and practice method.

It is generally recognized that there is no one best method of teaching and that a skillful teacher must have many methods in his or her repertoire (Clark & Starr, 1976; Joyce, 1978). Furthermore, it has become recognized that each teacher must have general pedagogical knowledge as well as content-specific instructional methods (Gideonse, 1989; Hoover, 1982; Shulman, 1987).

Teachers are expected to help students meet a range of social, personal, and academic goals. Three minimum academic expectations are that students should: (1) learn basic information and skills; (2) assign meaning to information and skills; and (3) generate and apply information and skills. These goals reflect societal expectations of teachers to help students learn the culture and basic skills, to help students learn content in sufficient depth to produce conceptual change on the part of students, and to help students learn how to solve problems in and out of school settings (Anderson, 1989; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1989).

Teaching is too complex for a simple matrix matching objectives with methods. Furthermore, the domains of instructional objectives and methods tend to overlap (Joyce, 1978). Still, recognizable and purposeful instructional methods do exist, based on both research paradigms and traditional methods, that can be used by teachers to help students achieve different academic goals. A thorough understanding of instructional methods should be a part of every teachers knowledge base, including knowledge about the theory and research underlying various methods.

A thorough understanding of different research paradigms and associated methods could inform teachers of exercising professional judgment in teaching. Knowing when and how to use various instructional methods is vital professional knowledge. For example, what teachers need to do to help students learn basic information and skills has been the major focus of the process-product research paradigm associated with teaching effectiveness. As mentioned earlier, this body of work has contributed to direct instruction and active teaching conceptions of effective instruction (Shulman, 1986). Other concepts associated with this paradigm include such things as monitoring instruction, time-on-task, and closure. Not only are these instructional methods associated with effective teaching, but they also add a research base to traditional instructional methods such as lecture, drill and practice, and recitation. Knowledge about the results of the process-product research paradigm and the methods it suggests would clearly aid a teacher in making professional decisions.

Yet, as important and necessary as the above methods are, they are not sufficient to represent a complete knowledge base. To help students assign meaning to information and skills and to generate and apply information and skills to solve problems in and out of school, the cognitive-mediational paradigm offers other important methods (Anderson,

1989a; 1989b). Mediated instruction and scaffolding are concepts associated with these. Traditional methods designed to help students toward these goals include discussion, case study, and inquiry. This perspective and sample methods would be an important addition to any teacher's understanding and repertoire of instructional methods.

Just as no one method will solve all instructional problems, no one paradigm will either. What is needed is a thorough understanding of a variety of instructional methods, their theory and research, as well as adequate practice in their use. Instructional methods can be learned systematically or haphazardly. What is clear from the beginning teacher and inservice literature is that adequate grounding in theory and practice for effective use of instructional methods and models takes a prolonged period of time.

Knowledge of instructional method is an important part of the knowledge base of professional teachers, and teacher education programs must provide and generate knowledge of instructional methods. Methods and their models are central to the knowledge base for teaching and define the professional practice of teachers.

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Can Professionalism Be Taught?

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> *The tragedy is that most people do not recognize the life and death nature of teaching. . . Every moment in the lives of teachers and pupils brings critical decisions of motivation, reinforcement, reward, ego enhancement, and goal direction. Proper professional decisions enhance learning and life; improper professional decisions send the learner towards incremental death in openness to experience and in ability to learn and contribute. Doctors and lawyers probably have neither more or less to do with life, death, and freedom than do teachers. Therefore, the teaching profession must continue its negotiations with society on behalf of more perfect education for its children. Teaching is definitely a matter of life and death. It should be entrusted only to the most thoroughly prepared professionals (Howsam, et al,1976,p.1).*

In this well-known quotation, the word, professional, is employed several times. Yet the authors never define professional. The reader must attach meaning. In fact, little is written about teaching to which it is not referred as professional.

Is there an operational definition of professional? A review of pertinent literature reveals many definitions but with little consensus among them over the last thirty years. In 1969, Goode equated professional with a body of abstract knowledge and an ideal of service. That same year, Bhaerman equated it with receiving adequate remuneration for services one performs on the basis of experience and education. More recently, Biehler & Snowman (1978), equated it with using relevant research to improve practice. Hofmeister and Lubke (1990) equated it simply with effective teaching. Hammond (1985) introduced the ideal that members of a profession must define and enforce their own standards and practice.

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An extensive review of characteristics that make teaching a profession and its practitioners professionals was done by Wolk (1990). He cited comparative studies done by sociologists who found commonalties among education, medicine, law, and architecture. These commonalties include:

1. Mastering a base of specialized knowledge.

2. Attracting capable people, mandating extensive preparation for entrance consideration, and controlling admittance.

3. Designing high standards of practice and regulating members free of external regulation and governmental administration.

4. Recognizing responsibility to those served and placing their interests first.

Clearly, professional includes a gamut of meanings. Teacher educators have the duty of certifying that new teachers are professional. How can that be accomplished when there is no one uniform standard?

Qualities Of A Professional

In no other profession are the practitioners entrusted with the future of society. While the importance of healing, upholding laws, and building safe structures is obvious, education touches lives with little tangible evidence of success. Consequently, unlike medicine, law and engineering, it is often found wanting as a profession.

Work with student teachers over a period of time has convinced the authors that there are qualities that a good teacher exhibits and that these identify a professional. The major quality is commitment. A professional is totally committed to, not merely involved with, his or her students and to teaching. Teaching is a service career not just a job with a long summer vacation.

The other qualities which a professional teacher exhibits are:

1. Going the extra mile, beyond what is expected by any contract or syllabus.

2. Being there for children unless deathly ill, e.g., not taking personal leave days as a matter of course.

3. Being curious about learning and wanting to absorb all ideas that will help in being a better teacher.

4. Being always well-planned and very excited about his or her plans.

5. Not needing to complain, criticize, or condemn.

6. Knowing the subject, loving the subject, knowing the child and loving the child.

7. Taking responsibility for mistakes and successes.

8. Knowing teaching is the most important and worthwhile career in the world.

Having clarified professionalism, can it be taught? Can professionalism be nurtured in a teacher education program? Maeroff (1988) provides a landmark model of how to allow already practicing teachers to become more professional. The model has obvious implications for teacher education programs:

1. First, boost the status of teachers because those who have lost the will are not likely to find the way.

2. Allow teachers to become more knowledgeable, and their power will be enhanced.

3. Allow teachers access to joint decision-making.

Macklin (1981) has distinguished the professional elements of teaching from other, more traditional professions. He maintains that, in our society, there are two different professional value systems at work- - the global values of profession and the values of a particular profession. Since the values of education as a profession are contrary to many values of profession globally, the preservice teaching experience must direct itself toward those values that are consistent with its specific objectives.

Teacher Education Program Model

While it may not be possible to pinpoint a definition of professional about which there is consensus at this time, it is possible to explore programmatic approaches which foster and support the establishment of many agreed upon qualities. In the teacher education program at California State University, Sacramento, some of these have been identified:

Effective Communication: All expectations are explained to students in verbal and written form well before any actual evaluation occurs. A weekly seminar allows students to discuss issues as they occur.

Autonomy: Taking heed of Maeroff's suggestions, the faculty attempts to empower preservice teachers by actively involving them in decision-making about their program. Students provide input about grade level preferences, school districts, and methodologies/programs they would like to see modeled. Besides having representation at some faculty meetings, students are encouraged to question, criticize, and problem-solve program concerns. They are teamed to help them learn to avoid isolation. They learn to share ideas and depend on each other for assistance during the preservice program and in subsequent teaching years.

Faculty Modeling: Faculty must demonstrate themselves as totally committed professionals--body, mind, and soul. They must be wiling to go the extra mile for their students as they hope their students, in turn, will do for others.

Carefully-Selected Cooperating Teachers: Teachers must be screened and selected for their ability to demonstrate the behaviors being sought. Although

teachers may self-nominate, they must receive support from their site administrators and attend a seminar class sponsored by the University before being assigned student teachers. Many cooperating teachers hold mentor status.

Positive Reinforcement: Through direct superivison and informal discussion, faculty provide positive reinforcement when preservice teachers demonstrate qualities being sought. This can be done verbally, through certificates of achievement, as part of observation feedback, or in formal evaluation procedures.

Statements From Successful Students: Past students who have demonstrated a high degree of professionalism in the program are asked to return and share their student teaching experiences with the new students and reiterate how important professional behaviors are to eventual success.

Cooperating Teachers Share Their Professional Expectations: A panel of practicing teachers who are widely respected as consummate professionals talks to the preservice teachers about professional expectations and the culture of public schools.

Role Plays: To bring home the meaning of professional behaviors, the educational seminars concomitant with the student teaching experience allow preservice teachers to role play various situations in which they might find themselves when they are teaching. A spectrum of possible professional behaviors is discussed with the group.

Teacher educators continually talk about wanting to instill professional behaviors in their preservice teachers, yet their understandings of professional often vary as discussed here. The Cal State program provides an operational definition and an explicit description of behaviors deemed necessary for a professional in education. It highlights qualities of teacher education that appear to nurture professionalism. It can give direction in defining professional within the ranks. At the same time, the effort to create a uniform understanding of professional must continue if education is to be perceived as a profession by those outside its ranks.

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Minimum Competency Standards: Should There Be Exceptions?

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Few professionals question the need for minimum competency standards in teacher education. With almost daily public and press demand for improvement and accountability in education, most informed individuals know that the issue will not disappear. The quest for quality education has its beginnings in improved standards of teacher education. The Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession called for a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards to recommend consistently high and rigorous standards for preparing and certifying teachers. In a report of initial policies, the Board (1989, p.6) has stated that "....the single most important action the nation can take to improve schools is to strengthen teaching."

Minimum competency standards require teacher preparation programs to examine their entrance requirements carefully. Some standards for entrance are already in place in most programs and include specific minimum grade point averages and demonstrated English and mathematics proficiency.

Are all applicants to teacher preparation programs to be held to the same entrance requirements? Can differences in competency be defended? In considering possible exceptions, at least three groups come immediately to mind: (1) those with limited English proficiency, (2) minority students who are underrepresented in Education, and (3) students with disabilities. This issue was raised by the Holmes Group (Barnes et al,1988), but recommendations have not been proposed.

At the heart of the issue is nondiscriminatory entrance into teacher education by individuals who may not meet existing standards, for example, minimum GPA's or English proficiency, or who have specific problems such as an inability to read. Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 specifically forbids such discrimination:

> *No otherwise qualified handicapped individual in the United States...shall, solely by reason of his handicap, be excluded from the participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any program of activity receiving federal financial assistance.*

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Defining what is meant by "otherwise qualified" presents a difficulty. Left unresolved is the ability , and the appropriateness, of students classified as learning disabled to become teachers. Will anyone ask the question, "Who will be responsible for certifying teachers who are unable to read?" Is reading a minimum competency? Can a superb auditory learning ability, or an advanced language comprehension, overcome completely the total lack of word calling?

Certainly, some disabled students who elect to enter teacher education are prepared to meet minimum entrance requirements. Are we to be able to say, "Persons with some disabilities are competent but those with others are not?" Will disability X prevent a person form becoming a teacher while disability Y will not? Many preservice students who are severely visually impaired complete teacher preparation programs and are reported to be excellent teachers. Visual deficits, at least to the degree that the individual is able to compensate for them through mechanical aides, would not seem to compromise potential success as a teacher. Obviously, many physically disabled students have demonstrated that they are capable of completing teacher preparation programs and performing as teachers where subject matter does not demand physical prowess.

In the past few years, more and more colleges and universities have been making provisions for handicapped students on their campuses. Colleges, two-year institutions in particular, have bid aggressively for the disabled student's enrollment. Some advertise that they offer not only special services and support staff but a total environment conducive to overcoming learning deficits. This is not entirely a new trend. Physically disabled students have been present in large numbers on campuses since veterans returned from WW2.

A recent phenomenon is the significant increase in learning disabled students who are choosing to continue education after high school. The Eighth Annual Report to Congress (1986) revealed that more than half of the nation's two million learning disabled students were expected to seek postsecondary education. Services offered by various educational institutions for these students range from providing textbooks on tape, test modifications including oral exams, test readers, time extensions, and recorded responses. Counseling and aptitude testing are generally available for all students but are particularly appropriate for the disabled learner. Class lectures may not only be taped, but recordings are frequently sold in campus bookstores. Tutors, proofreaders and other special service providers are made available to learning disabled students on request (Bursuck et al.,1989).

Postsecondary education should certainly be an option available to learning disabled students. In a survey of learning disabled adults, nine percent were found to have received the bachelor's degree (White et al., 1982). Major prerequisites for completion of a baccalaureate degree include intelligence, motivation and self-direction. One study of 25 learning disabled college students found that the ability to develop good coping strategies, organizational as well as academic, distinguished the successful students more than specific skills (Cowen, 1988). Will the qualities that distinguish good college students translate to the qualities of good teachers? Can these qualities be tested or substituted for minimum competency standards for teacher certification?

How can we protect and support the rights of one group of people, learning disabled students who have the right to pursue their career goals, without denying and abusing the rights of another group, public school students who deserve quality

programs, including competent teachers? Questions concerning the admission of learning disabled persons into teacher education must be recognized. If it is impossible to establish admission procedures that fit all applicants, then defensible guidelines that can be applied on a case by case basis need to be developed.

There are many questions which must be recognized and for which policies should be developed prior to implementation of national, or state, minimum competency standards in teacher education. They include:

1. Can a teacher preparation institution long survive if its graduates do not meet minimum standards of competence? The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (1989, p. 34) has emphasized that prerequisites for Board certification will be necessary but one criterion for certification is that "....any prerequisite adopted should lend itself to being applied uniformly and fairly to all candidates."

2. Will the public image of teachers be further tarnished if it is found that some teachers are unable to read? Will the public vote for increased support for what is perceived as mediocre education?

3. Should there be exceptions in certification? Should some teachers be limited to teaching in specific programs? For example, should the limited reading proficient teacher be certified only for preschool or for severely mentally impaired students? Would this involve explaining to the tax-paying public that reading is not a prerequisite for some certifications?

4. Can we demand that every learning disabled teacher be provided with a teaching assistant who would compensate for the teacher's specific deficits?

5. Should learning disabled teachers be permitted to demonstrate that they have developed adequate compensatory skills which circumvent minimum competency standards?

Section 504 opened a Pandora's earthenware jar and released many of the barriers for the disabled. As in the myth, let us be optimistic that hope and subsequent solution for these barriers remain within the jar and that they can be released by honest and responsible debate.

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Teaching As A Researching Profession

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It seems that little has changed since Hollis Caswell observed, in the foreword to a 1953 book by Stephen M. Corey that, "without the continuing impact of research findings, (teaching) procedures become stereotyped, and the profession rapidly takes on the characteristics of a trade" (p. v). How do we insure that research has an appropriate impact? How do we insure that teachers utilize research findings to improve school practice and enhance their own professionalism?

Using research has its limitations. Borg (1987, p. 2) has stated:

> *Unfortunately, the useful information that has emerged from educational research is difficult to locate and even more difficult to interpret and relate to the practical problems that teachers and school administrators must address.*

Cross (1987) contends that educational research has contributed to the knowledge of how to improve teaching. But she states that "the problem is not really that practitioners do not or will not apply the findings of research to their practice; it is that they cannot" (p. 499).

A greater factor to consider in why teachers fail to use the results of research and why reformers still call for changes in practice may be the view of teachers as technicians who are asked to respond to ideas for reform generated by experts outside the classroom. Much discussion exists in the current reform movement over whether teaching is a technical trade or a profession. Carr and Kemmis (1986) and Simmons (1984) both conclude that teaching cannot be judged a true profession because of the lack of emphasis on theory and research as a base for practice. Carr and Kemmis take the position that teachers "regard research as an esoteric activity having little to do with their everyday practical concerns" (p. 8). Simmons contends that if teaching is to be a profession and if reform is to be implemented, then the teacher must become a more active participant in the study of teaching, looking at the roles of the teacher, the instructional processes, and other things that influence effective teaching. The theory and knowledge base needed for a profession must be developed and used by those directly involved in practice.

Tikunoff and Mergendoller (1983) see the involvement of teachers in conducting research as imperative if the findings of research are to be viewed as helpful. They

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advocate a collaborative research approach as a way of professional staff development. Their model is a team-centered one made up of staff developers, researchers and teachers with a focus on addressing current concerns of the teachers. Use of their model in various schools reduced isolation, changed practice, and increased professional development.

Simmons (1984) describes how teachers can become involved in doing action research as a basis for change. She argues that true professional development will best be achieved through practitioner action research. Carr and Kemmis (1986) also advocate a teacher-researcher model and describe how an action research model has generated new views of teachers and their work throughout Brittain and Australia. Cross (1987) extols the use of classroom research as a means of improving teaching at all levels. In her model, teachers evaluate their own effectiveness. Results are situation-specific, and teachers can use the results to shape practice. Cross views classroom research as one way to involve teachers in professional decision-making. She believes that improvement in learning will come only with the active involvement of the teacher.

A Study. To investigate perceptions of public school teachers regarding educational research, a study sponsored by a grant from James Madison University was conducted in the school districts of Augusta County and Harrisonburg, Virginia, during the spring of 1988. A survey of attitudes about educational research was developed. Seven hundred seventy-three surveys were distributed and 243 returned, a 31% return rate. Of the total respondents, 58% taught on the elementary level and 42% on the secondary level. Eighteen percent of the respondents were male and 82% female. Teaching experience ranged from one year to thirty-five years with the highest number of subjects falling into the fourteen years of teaching experience category. Fifty-six percent of the respondents indicated that the baccalaureate degree was the highest earned, 43% the masters, and 1% the doctorate.

Seventy percent of the respondents believe that educational research is very informative, and 75% agreed that it is important to their teaching. But the survey findings also indicated that a significant number of respondents (more than 35%) believed that applying research findings to one's classroom situation may prove difficult. Research is perceived as inaccessible, contradictory in its findings, and theoretical. Also, teachers seem at best ambivalent when considering doing their own research, either alone or working collaboratively with other teachers.

Action Research -- An Option

In view of our study's findings, the option for teachers may be action research. Action research has been defined as research carried out by a teacher for the purpose of improving classroom practice and understanding it better. Through action research, teaching can perhaps become a researching profession. Action research is situation-specific and results are not intended to be generalizable. The basic steps of action research are reconnaissance, planning, action and reflection. Teachers, of course, do these activities on a daily basis, but action research requires teachers to use them with more care and rigor than may already be the case.

Reconnaissance. This initial step deals with problem identification and the recognition that some kind of change must occur. Reconnaissance is the first attempt to scrutinize closely what is happening and to identify the field of action. Elements in the field of action can include current practices, persons involved, possibilities for change, and other aspects of the social context..

The motivation to change may be initiated from personal experience or external policy. Examples might include a teacher's dissatisfaction with classroom discussions and a decision to try a different way of asking questions. An administrator may want teachers to incorporate writing across the curriculum to improve students' skills, or a state education agency may mandate a program of sex education to be implemented in the 6th through 12th grades. In each case, there is a belief that something needs to be changed and a general sense of what can be done.

Planning. In making a research plan, systematic thought begins to take shape. A plan of action is developed, including an exact description of what the researcher is going to change in practice. The basis for this description is a set of hypotheses developed about a problem and possible alternatives for action. It is assumed that there are several ways to attack a problem, and a particular way is chosen along with a rationale for it. Another part of the description should be a statement of anticipated positive and negative effects. Finally, the way in which research activities are to be monitored and data collected should be described.

The three essential parts of planning are descriptions of the change in practice, intended effects, and data collection methods. Advocates of action research suggest identifying other elements, such as people who are involved, people who are affected, resource requirements, and anticipated constraints and problems. The researcher must ultimately decide how detailed the plan is to be and what additional information may be appropriate.

Action. Action is twofold; it involves implementing the plan and monitoring its effects in the context in which it occurs. In this step, the teacher-researcher is testing ideas in practice for the purpose of improving and increasing knowledge about teaching and learning. Acting is carrying out a plan in a controlled and deliberate fashion. Frequently, a timetable is used to maintain the planned schedule and to ensure acting in a purposeful manner.

Various methods for collecting data can be incorporated in action research. Kemmis and McTaggart (1982) recommend the use of multiple methods in order to gain a comprehensive picture of what is happening. Such techniques can include anecdotal records, field notes, logs, portfolios, questionnaires, interviews, audio and videotapes, and photographs. The responsibility of the researcher is to determine which method or combination is most appropriate. Data collection serves the function of documenting the effects of the action and is used as a basis for the next step, reflection.

Reflection. After the plan has been developed, put into action and data collected, the teacher-researcher must reflect on what has, or has not, happened. During this step, the teacher analyzes the effects of the action taken. Reflection gives a basis for further planning and a reason to take subsequent action. This is the point at which the process of action research becomes cyclical, the plan is revised and the process begins anew. The recycling aspect of the action research process is crucial. Action research has been characterized as a spiral of repeated planning, action, and reflection.

During a recent course, "Developing Students' Study Skills," classroom teachers used action research to explore methods to enhance students' study and critical thinking skills. Teacher-researchers in the course used the format of questions in Figure 1 to guide their action research. The format summarizes the four steps of action research.

STEP 1: RECONNAISSANCE

What two major problems do my students have with study/critical thinking skills?
With what content area or skill/topicdo my students have the most difficulty?
What are three specific ways in which I want my students to improve their study skills?

STEP 2: PLANNING

Of the specific ways in which I want my students to improve, which one do I want to research?
What plan of action am I going to undertake to change my classroom practices to help my students improve?
What are possible negative and positive effects of change(s) in classroom practice?
What am I going to do to monitor change?
What kind of information do I need to collect to determine if students have improved as a result of the change?

STEP 3: ACTION

How am I going to implement the plan of action?
What specific steps do I ned to follow in order to implement this plan?
At what specific points will observations take place and data be collected?

STEP 4: REFLECTION

What happened?
Did the students improve their learning as a result of change in practice?
Were there are some external considerations that helped or hindered both the plan of action and my research?
What have I learned?
If I were to do this again, how would I do it differently?
What is my next step?

Figure 1

Four Action Research Steps
Applied To Developing Student's Study Skills

The results of the action research conducted by my students were intriguing, not only because of what these teacher-researchers learned about classroom practice and how to improve it but also because of what they learned about themselves as professionals. Some had never worked collaboratively with other teachers in a systematic focused way. Others had not been challenged to examine what they do in the classroom or to make efforts to change and monitor results. Many never actively reflected upon their teaching methods or their students' learning in a structured way. The students in this course were to undertake action research. They also were required to do an in-class presentation of their findings, i.e., a research report. This activity proved very useful for them. It gave these teachers opportunities to discuss their classroom practices and research findings in a context which encouraged the sharing of ideas and some carefully considered risk taking.

The ideas proposed by Cross (1987), Simmons (1984), and Carr and Kemmis (1986) can renew interest in action research and enhance the role of teachers as researching professionals. Teachers need to be viewed as professionals and be permitted decision-making based not only on experience but also on the results of their action research.

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A Model For The Governance Of University-Wide Teacher Education

Richard E. Ishler and Sandra Longfellow Robinson
The University of South Carolina-Columbia

Peter J. Larson
Singapore American School

In the Fall-Winter, 1989-90, issue of ***The Journal,*** *H. Thomas Compton and Mary Ann Byrnes provided perspective and insight about the unique program and institutional parameters of teacher education at the University of South Carolina-Columbia. Mary Ann Byrnes also provided a program update. In what follows, the new College of Education dean at USC-Columbia looks at unique governance structures, their relationships to program, and their capacity for responding to subject-matter demands.*
-- The Editors.

Richard E. Ishler is dean of the College of Education, the University of South Carolina-Columbia. He has published widely on teacher education. He is a distinguished member of the Association of Teacher Educators and recently recognized as one of "70 National Leaders in Teacher Education."

Sandra Longfellow Robinson is associate professor and Director of Accreditation, the University of South Carolina-Columbia. She is a former classroom teacher and has contributed to several professional publications.

Peter J. Larson was recently appointed principal of the Singapore American School. A Ph.D. candidate at the University of South Carolina-Columbia, he was formerly associated with the University of Northern Iowa and the International School of Ouagadougan in West Africa. (A portrait of Mr. Larson was not available.)

"New teacher certification rules approved. . . by the Massachusetts State Board of Education effectively abolish the undergraduate education major for colleges and universities in the state and instead require prospective teachers to focus on the subjects they will one day teach" (Education Week, January 31, 1990. p. 5). This action in Massachusetts is the most recent example of what appears to be a growing nationwide result of the considerable scrutiny the traditional routes by which teachers become certified are undergoing.

Indeed, since the 1986 publication of the Holmes Group's Tomorrow's Teachers and the Carnegie Forum of Education and the Economy's A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century, there has been ever-increasing public and professional discussion regarding the need for teachers to have a better command of the subjects they teach. From the alternative certification programs championed by Governor Kean of New Jersey to the vision of the professional educator under development by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards to the conversations of governors involved in President George Bush's Education Summit of 1989, the emerging consensus appears to be "that it is important for teachers to be trained first and foremost in a subject and then to acquire education-specific skills as a supplement" (Teacher Education Reports, 1989, October 12, p. 3).

Several states have already eliminated undergraduate education majors through action of their legislatures, state board of education, or higher education commission. A number of other states are considering such action, and it is likely that many more states will take steps to require prospective teachers to earn their baccalaureate degrees in their teaching fields rather than in education. Some teacher education institutions had taken initiative to eliminate undergraduate majors in education prior to the recent national move in this direction. The University of South Carolina-Columbia is one such institution.

The purposes of this article are: (1) to describe two methods of training teachers at a university with no undergraduate degree in education, and (2) to diagram and discuss a structure to govern basic and advanced programs shared by diverse colleges throughout The University of South Carolina and advanced programs still housed within the College of Education. The governance structure for the professional education unit at The University of South Carolina has implications for all major universities that no longer have undergraduate majors in education.

In December of 1982, the Board of Trustees of he University of South Carolina abolished undergraduate degrees in education on the main campus at Columbia. Already in place for students seeking secondary certification was a Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) degree. Like many such programs around the country, this degree is:

1. Designed for students who have already completed a bachelor's degree.

2. A mixture of graduate and undergraduate courses.

3. Designed to include a minimum of 46 semester hours of credit.

4. Coordinated by a representative of the Graduate School who is also a College of Education faculty member.

The MAT program was believed to be an appropriate route for those students who decided later in life to become teachers or who were willing to delay specific career preparation until after earning an undergraduate degree.

The College of Education faculty, however, felt that a different program was needed for another kind of student: the high school graduate who is convinced that teaching is his calling and who does not want to wait until after completing a four-year liberal arts degree before having contact with children in school settings. The faculty began work during the winter break of 1982 to conceptualize a new approach to teacher education. What emerged was a lengthened baccalaureate degree program, the extended Bachelor of Arts of Interdisciplinary Studies (BAIS) and the extended BA or BS. Other colleges on campus award the baccalaureate degree to preservice students completing their programs. The College of Education provides certification advisement, professional education courses, and certification recommendations for teacher candidates.

Education courses are included as a part of the 120-semester hour baccalaureate degree program. In addition to the degree requirements of their college, teacher education students complete 18 additional hours of education courses including nine hours of student teaching. The minimum number of semester hours required for the baccalaureate degree and teacher certification is 138. The coursework was agreed upon in a relatively short (by university standards) amount of time. Some questions, however, required more consideration:

- Who would advise these students?
- How much choice would students have regarding which humanities, mathematics and science courses should be completed?
- How could changes in curriculum be made--through what channels?
- How would the university organize to respond to accreditation standards?
- Who would act as the university's spokesperson for teacher education?

The difficulties experienced in addressing these questions adequately during the first several years of operation without an undergraduate major led to the formation of a new governance structure for teacher education at USC-Columbia. This structure was implemented at the beginning of the 1989-90 academic year.

University-Wide Teacher Education: The Intercollegiate Component

Answering questions that involve the perogatives of different colleges on a major university campus is a complex and often confounding process. Six colleges are involved in the initial certification of teachers at The University of South Carolina: (1) Applied Professional Sciences, (2) Humanities and Social Sciences, (3) Science and Mathematics, (4) Health, (5) Library and Information Science and (6) Education. To bring about a workable governance structure, planners from all colleges resolved to clarify issues of control, to collaborate, compromise, build consensus, and listen, and to address concerns of colleagues from the various colleges.

While it was evident that control of programs would be shared among the colleges, it was also apparent that a need existed for a single individual to represent professional education to the University and the community. Since academic authority for the University is vested in the Provost, it was decided that he would name a Director of Teacher Education to coordinate the university-wide programs. The Dean of the College of Education now holds this additional title.

In his capacity as the Director of Teacher Education, the Dean of the College of Education is responsible for the coordination of all professional education programs on the Columbia campus as well as administration of the curricula and resources of the College of Education. In meeting these responsibilities, the Director of Teacher Education promulgates policies related to professional programs in education.

To facilitate collaboration among deans of the six colleges with input into decisions regarding the education of teachers, the Intercollegiate Education Governance Committee (IEGC) was created. This committee is composed of the dean from each of the colleges listed above. Chaired by the Director of Teacher Education, the IEGC meets on a monthly basis or as called by the chair. Its primary functions include the review of policies related to the preparation of professional school personnel including, for example, NCATE and state accreditation standards for the admission of students to professional programs, review of changes with regard to program quality, and exit requirements. The Director of Teacher Education reviews recommendations of the committee and sends them, with his recommendations, to appropriate university committees and the Provost. Figure 1 depicts the governance process for the university-wide programs in professional education at USC-Columbia.

Issues such as advisement and course selection are resolved through compromise and collaboration. Faculty in the colleges which offer the degree programs (BA, BS, BAIS) advise students regarding all degree-related courses. In addition to this advisor, students are assigned a College of Education advisor who monitors certification requirements. To foster communication among these faculty members, a Director of Undergraduate Advisement was named. A member of the College of Education faculty, the Director of Undergraduate Advisement:

1. Provides information to students related to various screening procedures, certification requirements, and professional development;

2. Serves as a resource for appointed advisors in the colleges from which prospective teachers earn their degrees and in the College of Education;

3. Coordinates efforts to stimulate student awareness and interest in the education profession.

Advanced Programs Component. Those advanced programs that are offered within the College of Education operate under a governance structure that is complementary to the intercollegiate structure. The governance responsibility for the advanced programs is carried out by the Advanced Programs Governance Committee (APGC) which reports to the Dean of Education who, in turn, makes recommendations to the appropriate university committees and to the Provost. Each department in the College elects two voting members to the APGC. It is chaired by the Associate Dean for Academic Affairs of the College. Figure 2 depicts the governance structure for the College of Education's Advanced Programs.

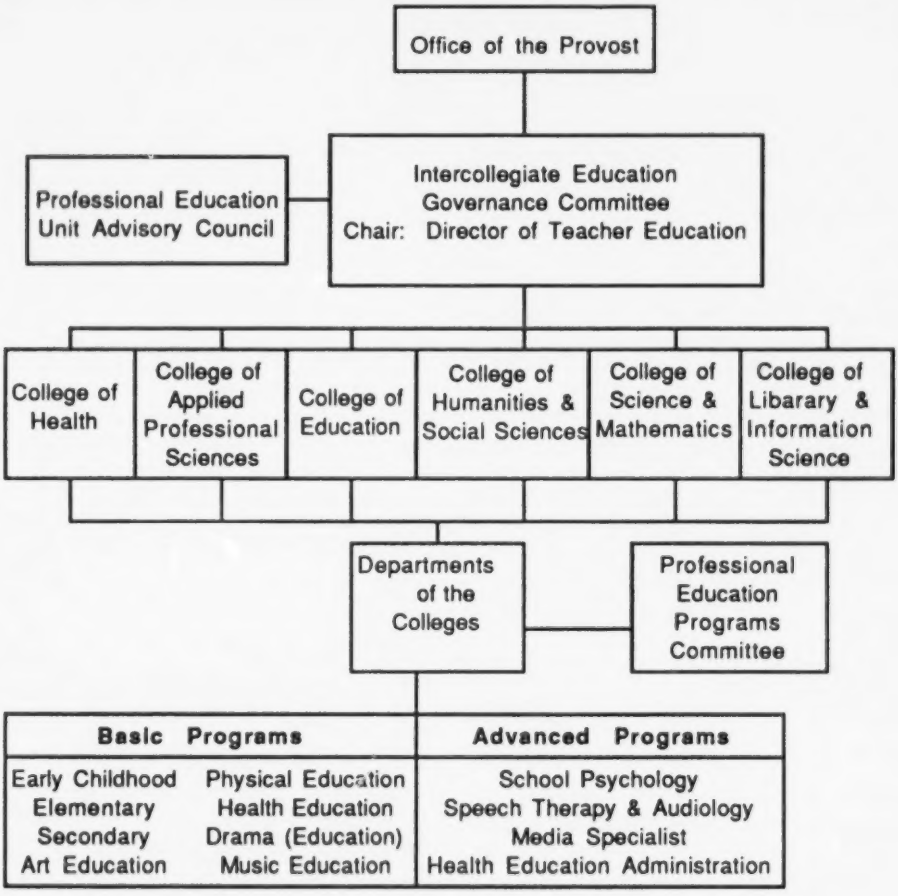

Figure 1
Governance of University-Wide Teacher Education Programs at USC-Columbia

Collaboration and Communication Across Governance Structures

An observation by Abraham Lincoln aptly summarizes the Professional Education faculty's intent in establishing its governance structures. Lincoln said, "The legitimate object of government is to do for a community of people whatever they need to have done but cannot do at all in their separate and individual capacities."

In order to provide forums for listening to and addressing the concerns of colleagues from the colleges within both professional education governance structures

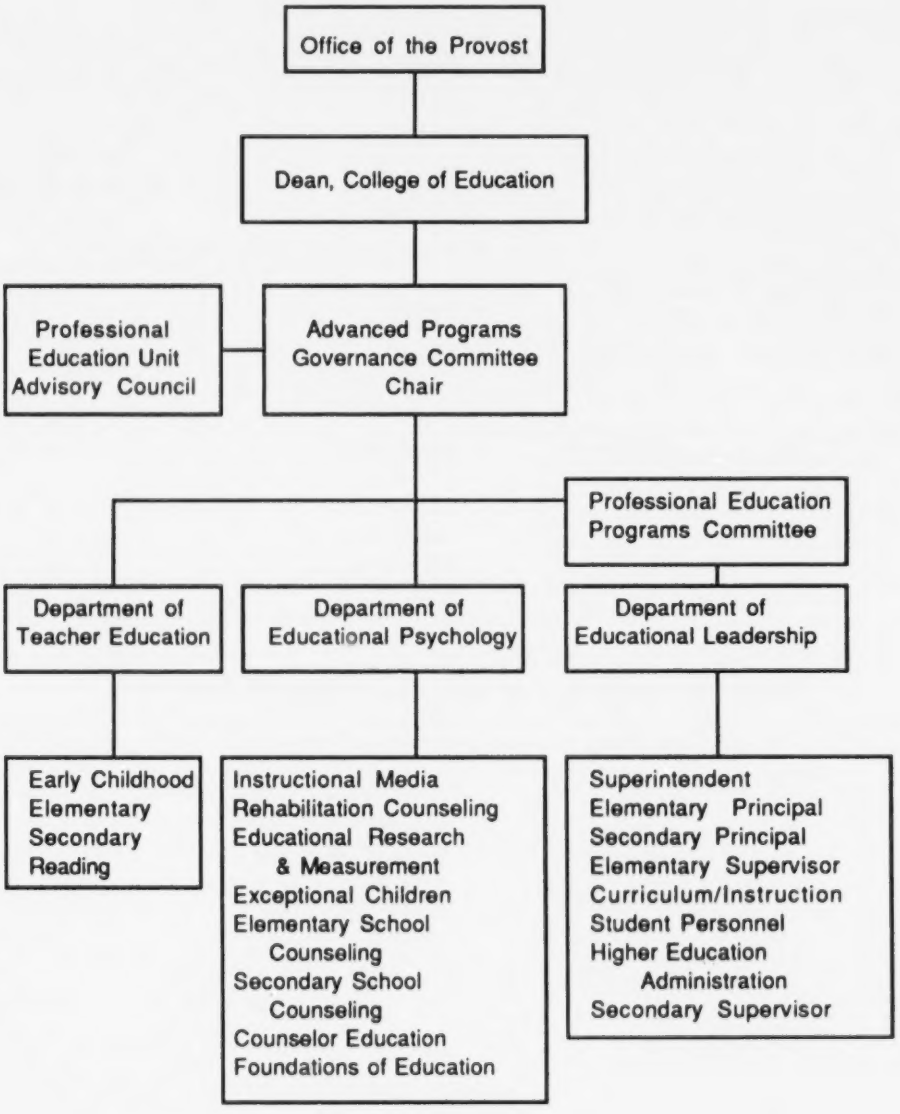

Figure 2
Governance of College Education
Advanced Programs at USC-Columbia

at USC-Columbia, two advisory groups were formed: (1) the Professional Education Programs Committee (PEPC), an internal group, and (2) the Professional Education Unit Advisory Council (PEUAC), an outreach group.

The PEPC is composed of faculty representatives of each teacher certification program at the University and students preparing for teaching careers. The primary function of this advisory committee is communication among the various programs. To give a specific example of PEPC activity, this committee played a crucial role in the collaborative development and dissemination of the professional education unit's knowledge base statement, including the goals, objectives, and major topics and theorists of all education personnel preparation programs at USC-Columbia. The development of a long-range planning document for the Unit has also been discussed within the PEPC. Meeting agendas include topics of general interest such as accreditation, field experiences, and follow-up of graduates. In fulfilling its role, the PEPC develops recommendations for consideration by the Intercollegiate Education Governance Committee and the Advanced Programs Governance Committee.

The PEUAC, chaired by the dean of the College of Education, is composed of representatives from professional education organizations, the South Carolina Department of Education, administrators and faculty from all colleges involved in the preparation of teachers, our students, and school-based educators. The primary functions of PEUAC include reviewing and reacting to major changes in the mission, goals, and programs of the professional education unit and reflecting the professional perspectives of the various constituencies affected by the preparation of professional educators in South Carolina.

Summary

In an era when many groups are focusing on teacher education, preservice preparation is under pressure to better attend to the content knowledge acquisition of undergraduates hoping to become K-12 teachers. The challenge for teacher educators is to design a workable teacher education governance structure that recognizes the increasing importance of the roles of the subject-matter colleges while retaining the overall coordination of such programs under the direction of the College of Education. The two components comprising the professional education units at USC-Columbia discussed here have been developed and implemented to meet this challenge.

Forging the relationships necessary to govern contemporary teacher education programs successfully requires recognition that preparing the nation's K-12 teachers is truly a university-wide effort. Successfully governing such an enterprise hinges upon the willingness of all colleges and constituencies involved to listen to others' concerns, to compromise, cooperate, collaborate, and to work together to build consensus. The University of South Carolina's teacher education programs have been strengthened by this new approach.

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BOOK REVIEW

The Quality School

William Glasser, M.D.
Harper & Row, Publishers 1990

*Reviewed by Donna L. Wissbrun**

Glasser's latest book examines the problem of low student achievement in today's schools. He suggests that, through better management and leadership, teachers can teach more effectively. His perspective offers the reader much food for thought.

The book's focus is on a comparison of two leadership styles that can be employed by both teachers and school administrators: boss-management (autocratic) style and lead-management (participative) style. Boss-managers control, coerce, criticize, and punish; they create adversarial relationships with students. Glasser asserts that this is the predominate leadership style used in schools. The lead-management style (based on the methods of W. Edwards Deming) employs persuasion, problem-solving, information-sharing, caring, modeling, and cooperation. The author prefers this latter management style that teachers should be prepared to use.

Glasser suggests that teachers can motivate students to do quality work by using lead-management to create a positive image of school in students' quality worlds. The quality world is an individual's collection of pleasurable memories that has developed for meeting that person's basic human needs. According to Glasser, this positive image can be created by teachers who facilitate, encourage, and empower students to learn. Since empowerment satisfies a basic need that students have to be in charge of their work, quality work will be achieved by most, if not all, students when employed.

Especially interesting are Glasser's opinions about teacher role-modeling, assigning homework, preventing disruptions, peer counseling, and contacting parents. By making the student's needs a priority, teachers are required to eliminate many of the traditional approaches to teaching. Parents, for example, can be partners for assisting students in problem-solving and learning, but they need not be notified of behavior problems.

The vision of the quality school where all students learn and produce high-quality work is exciting. It offers a challenge to teacher educators, school administrators, classroom teachers, and parents. Only through cooperative efforts could such an educational transformation occur on a large scale in this society. Perhaps lead-management is one part of that transformation.

This book offers fast, stimulating reading. It leaves the reader with many ideas and many questions.

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The Relationship Between Measures of Brain Dominance and Perceived Communication Variables Among Student Teachers and Their Cooperating Teachers

Nancy Pietraskiewicz
Central Michigan University

Do you remember when cooperating teachers were called critic teachers? Have you ever wondered why, or how, the title change occurred? Over time, most universities have changed the title of teachers selected to work with student teachers. At one time, critic teacher was common. Titles such as supervising teacher evolved. Each title implies a different relationship, and perhaps communication style. Cooperating teacher is the title currently used at most teacher education institutions.

Over the years, the title change suggests a change in expectations and in the relationship between the teacher and the student teacher. For the most part, a student teacher is now viewed more as colleague and less as subordinate. The relationship is more open, less rigid. The cooperating teacher is ideally seen today as guider, helper and cooperator. The role is more flexible and less authoritarian than it may have been.

As those of us who work with student teachers realize all too clearly, student teachers and cooperating teachers develop differing relationships. It has been observed that, often when there are problems in a student teacher/cooperating teacher relationship, the situation can be characterized by a lack both of mutual discussion and of open, honest interaction. Problem relationships are also often remarkable for their lack of cooperation and lack of feelings of warmth and equality. After reviewing several cases, it seemed as if there were specific characteristics that lend themselves to a problem relationship and other characteristics that had the opposite effect. In an attempt to understand these relationships further and to shed some light on why they happen, we decided to examine brain dominance and the quality of communication between student teachers and cooperating teachers.

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Most student teachers report that their student teaching was the single most important and meaningful aspect of their entire teacher education program (Mosow, 1975; Appleberry, 1976; Haring & Nelson, 1980). The cooperating teacher clearly has great influence on the student teacher (Karmos & Jacko, 1977; Alper & Retish, 1980; Dispoto, 1980). Assigning a cooperating teacher is much too important to be left entirely to chance.

Twenty Central Michigan University student teachers were assigned to 35 cooperating teachers who supervised their student teaching during the spring of 1988. Some of the student teachers had one, others had two cooperating teachers. The assignments were made on a random basis. Each student teacher and each cooperating teacher was asked to fill out both a relational communication survey and a Herrmann Participant Survey Form.*

The relational survey (Burgoon and Hale, 1987) consists of 41 items that measure eight dimensions of relational communication: (1) immediacy/affection, (2) similarity/depth, (3) receptivity/trust, (4) composure, (5) formality, (6) dominance, (7) equality, and (8) task orientation. The items are set in Likert format with range of one (strongly agree) to seven (strongly disagree).

The Herrmann survey is a unique measure of brain dominance. The survey divides the brain into four quadrants (right and left, upper and lower) rather than the standard two (right and left). Each quadrant is associated with unique behavioral tendencies (see Figure 1). The model examines not only the right and left side of the brain, but the upper and lower brain as well. The upper half of the brain, the cerebral mode, consists of upper left (cerebral left) and upper right (cerebral right). The bottom half, the limbic mode, consists of lower left (limbic left) and lower right (limbic right).

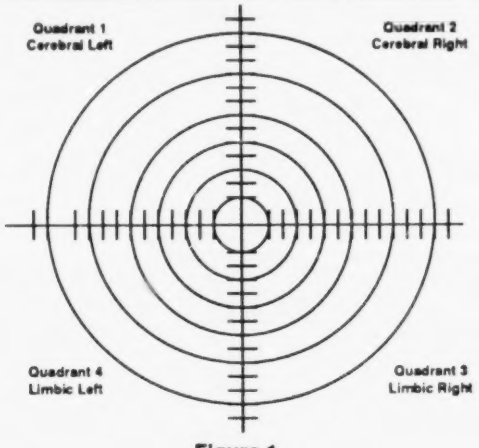

Figure 1
Herrmann Brain Dominance

* Editors Note: These surveys can be found at the end of this report and are included for your information. Information on how to score these instruments however is not included. Contact authors for further information, if desired.

Herrmann (1988) offers the following descriptions of each quadrant (p. 47):

A Quadrant:	Cerebral Left (upper left). . . Factual, Logical, Rational, Theoretical, Mathematical.
B Quadrant:	Limbic Left (lower left). . . Ordered, Detailed, Sequential, Controlled, Conservative.
C Quadrant:	Limbic Right (lower right). . . Musical, Spiritual, Talkative, Emotional, Empathetic.
D Quadrant	Cerebral Right (upper right). . . Artistic, Holistic, Flexible, Imaginative, Synthesizing

Findings and Conclusion

Correlational relationships between brain dominance and relational communication were found on two themes: equality and formality. Cooperating teachers showing cerebral right dominance were likely to view communications with their student teachers as cooperative and as wanting to be considered equals. On the other hand, cooperating teachers with limbic left dominance were more likely to view student teachers as not wanting to cooperate and not considering themselves as equals with the cooperating teacher. Cooperating teachers showing cerebral right dominance tended to view their student teachers as wanting mutual discussions and interactions to be casual rather than formal.

In reviewing the results of this study, some interesting implications for the selection of cooperating teachers surfaced. The study may suggest some degree of caution is in order when prospective cooperating teachers exhibit a pronounced limbic left profile. Herrmann describes limbic left dominants as demanding towards themselves and subordinates. They also have a high need to conform to protocol. This profile may be high risk in terms of selecting an individual with the kind of interpersonal style conducive to good communication and a quality relationship between the cooperating teacher and the student teacher.

It is possible that the demanding, formal and less cooperative qualities of a limbic left individual would work against the very relationship that universities wish to provide in the student teaching setting. It is also possible that the qualities exhibited by a cerebral right individual may indeed help create the type of open, informal relationship that will

lead to the type of interpersonal communication expected by today's colleges and universities.

Though it would be impossible to suggest that all limbic left individuals should be avoided as cooperating teachers or that all cerebral rights are ideal, there is a strong indication that these factors should at least be taken into consideration when student teacher placements are made. This is especially valid in a situation where there are a variety of choices available. Though it may not be practical to administer the Herrmann survey to prospective cooperating teachers, certain personality characteristics are fairly obvious to discern. A rigid controlling individual might not be the best choice for a cooperating teacher, whereas a flexible, less rigid person might be better suited to the type of relationship universities are striving to encourage.

We should use every tool at our disposal in order to help insure a quality experience for our student teachers. We should not ignore the suggested implications between brain dominance and interpersonal communication, and the effect these factors have on the quality of the relationship and thus the total experience. Perhaps with this in mind we can move in the direction of truly having more cooperating teachers and less critic teachers.

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APPENDIX
RELATIONAL COMMUNICATION SURVEY

		Strongly Agree						Strongly Disagree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MY STUDENT TEACHER:								
1.	Did not want a deeper relationship between us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Was intensely involved in our conversation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Found the conversation stimulating.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Was not attracted to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Communicated coldness rather than warmth.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Created a sense of distance between us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Acted bored by our conversation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Seemed interested in talking to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Showed enthusiasm while talking to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Made me feel he/she was similar to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Tried to move the conversation to a deeper level.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Acted like we were good friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Seemed to desire further communication with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Seemed to care if I liked him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Was sincere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	Was interested in talking with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Wanted me to trust him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Was willing to listen to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Wanted me to trust him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	Was willing to listen to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	Was open to my ideas. 1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	Was honest in communication with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	Felt very tense talking with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	Was calm and poised with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Felt very relaxed talking with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	Seemed nervous in my presence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	Seemed comfortable interacting with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	Made the interaction very formal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	Wanted the discussion to be casual.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	Wanted the discussion informal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	Attempted to persuade me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	Didn't attempt to influence me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	Tried to control the interaction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	Tried to gain my approval.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	Didn't try to win my favor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	Had the upper hand in conversation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	Considered us equals. 1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	Didn't treat me as an equal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	Wanted to cooperate. 1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	Wanted to stick to the main purpose.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	Was more interested in social conversation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	than task at hand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	Was very work-oriented. 1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	Was more interested in working on task at	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	hand than having social conversation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

HERRMANN PARTICIPANT SURVEY FORM

DIRECTIONS: Answer each question by writing the appropriate words or marking in the box or space provided. Since this is not a test, there ar no right or wrong answers. You are only indicating your preferences. For definition of terms used, refer to the glossary on the back of the 20 Questions Form.

I. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION:

1. Name _____ 2. Sex: Male _____ Female _____
3. Educational Focus or Major _____
4. Occupation or Job Title _____

Describe the nature of your work _____

II. HANDEDNESS

5. Which picture most closely resembles the way you hold a pencil? Mark A, B, C, or D.

A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D ☐

6. Strength and direction of your handedness: Mark A, B, C, D, or E.

A ☐	B ☐	C ☐	D ☐	E ☐
Primary Left	Primary Left Some Right	Both Hands Equal	Primary Right Some Left	Primary Right

III. BEST/WORST SUBJECTS

Thinking back to your best/worst subjects in elementary or secondary school please rank the following subjects with a 1, 2, or 3 on the basis of how well you did. Rank all three subjects. 1 is best, 2 is second, 3 is third best. Record yolur ranks in the boxes.

☐ 7. Math ☐ 8. Foreign Language ☐ 9. Native Language or Mother Tongue

IV. WORK ELEMENTS

Indicate your response to each of the work elements below using the following key:

5 = Work I do best
4 = Wor I do well
3 = Neutral
2 = Work I do less well
1 = Work I do least well

Do not use any number from the KEY any more than 4 times.

10. _____	Analytical	18. _____	Planning
11. _____	Administrative	19. _____	Interpersonal Aspects
12. _____	Conceptualizing	20. _____	Problem Solving
13. _____	Expressing Ideas	21. _____	Innovating
14. _____	Integration	22. _____	Teaching/Training
15. _____	Writing	23. _____	Organization
16. _____	Technical Aspects	24. _____	Creative Aspects
17. _____	Implementation	25. _____	Financial Aspects

(survey continues)

V. KEY DESCRIPTORS

Select the eight adjectives which best describe the way you see yourself and mark a "2" by each. Then change a subgke "2" to a "3" for the adjective which best describes you. Mark the sevn "2's" and one "3" on your answer sheet if it is provided.

10.	Logical	34.	Detailed	10.	Symbolicl
11.	Creative	35.	Emotional	11.	Dominant
12.	Musical	36.	Spatial	12.	Holistic
13.	Sequential	37.	Critical	13.	Intuitive
14.	Synthesizer	38.	Artistic	14.	Quantitative
15.	Verbal	39.	Spiritual	15.	Reader
16.	Conservative	40.	Rational	16.	Simultaneous
17.	Analytical	41.	Controlled	17.	Factual
		42.	Mathematical		

VI. HOBBIES

Indicate a maximum of 6 hobbies you are actively engaged in by marking a "3" for your major hobi y, "2" for primary hobbies and "1" for your secondary hobbies.

51.	Arts/Crafts	59.	Gardening/Plants	67.	Sewing
52.	Boating	60.	Golf	68.	Spectator Sports
53.	Camping/Hiking	61.	Home Improvements	69.	Swimming/Diving
54.	Cards	62.	Music/Listening	70.	Tennis
55.	Collecting	63.	Music/Playng	71.	Travel
56.	Cooking	64.	Photography	72.	Wood Working
57.	Creative Writing	65.	Reading	Other:	
58.	Fishing	66.	Sailing		

VII. ENERGY LEVEL

73. Thinking about your energy level or "drive", SELECT the ONE which best represents you. Mark A, B, or C.

A ☐ Day Person B ☐ Day/Night Equally C ☐ Night Person

VIII. MOTION SICKNESS

74. Have you ever experienced motion sickness (nausea, vomiting) in resonse to any kind of vehicular motion (such as car, boat, plane, bus, train, amusement ride)? Number of times: A, B, C, or D.

A ☐ None B ☐ 1-2 C ☐ 3-10 D ☐ More than 10

75. Can you read while traveling in a care without stomach awareness, headach, nausea or vomiting? Mark A or B.

A ☐ Yes B ☐ No

(survey continues)

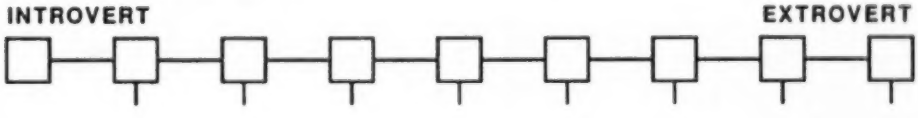
IX. ADJECTIVE PAIRS

Which word or phrase in each pair is more descriptive of yourself? Mark only A or B even eif the choice is a difficult one. do not leave any question unmarked.

COLUMN A	COLUMN B	COLUMN A	COLUMN B
___Conservative	___Empathetic	___Imaginative	___Sequential
___Analyst	___Synthesizer	___Original	___Reliable
___Quantitative	___Musical	___Creative	___Logical
___Problem Solver	___Planner	___Controlled	___Emotional
___Controlled	___Creative	___Musical	___Detailed
___Original	___Emotional	___Simultaneous	___Empathetic
___Feeling	___Thinking	___Communicator	___Conceptualizer
___Interpersonal	___Organizer	___Technical Things	___People Oriented
___Spiritual	___Creative	___Well Organized	___Logical
___Detailed	___Holistic	___Rigorous Thinking	___Metaphorical Thinking
___Originate Ideas	___Test & Prove Ideas	___Like Things Planned	___Like Things Mathematical
___Warm, Friendly	___Analytical	___Technical	___Dominant

X. INTROVERSION/EXTROVERSION

100. Where would you place yourself on this scale? Mark an "X" in one of the boxes on the scale between introvert and extrovert.



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HERRMANN 20 QUESTIONS

Name _____

Directions: Answer each question by marking an "X" in the appropriate column.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	In Between	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel that a step by step method is best for solving problems.					
2. Daydreaming has provided the impetus for the solution of many of my more important problems.					
3. I like people who are most sure of their conclusions.					
4. I would rather be known as a reliable than an imaginative person.					
5. I often get my best ideas when doing nothing in particular.					
6. I rely on hunches and the feeling of "rightness" or "wrongness" when moving toward the solution to a problem.					
7. I sometimes get a kick out of breaking the rules and doing things I'm not supposed to do.					
8. Much of what is most important in life cannot be expressed in words.					
9. I'm basically more competitive with others than self-competitive.					
10. I would enjoy spending an entire day "alone with my thoughts."					
11. I dislike things being uncertain and unpredictable.					
12. I prefer to work with others in a team effort rather than solo.					
	Column A	Column B	Column C	Column D	Column E

HERRMANN 20 QUESTIONS (cont.)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	In Between	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
13. It is important for me to have a place for everything and everything in its place.					
14. Unusual ideas and daring concepts interest and and intrigue me.					
15. I prefer specific instructions to those which leave many details optional.					
16. Know-why is more important than know-how.					
17. Thorough planning and organization of time are mandatory for solving difficult problems.					
18. I can frequently anticipate the solutions to my problems.					
19. I tend to rely more on my first impressions and feelings when making judgements than on a careful analysis of the situation.					
20. I feel that laws should be strictly enforced.					
	Column A	Column B	Column C	Column D	Column E

Certification Practices In The United States: A Status Report

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In the United States, governmental responsibilities for public education policy and practice are not placed in a single centralized agency. Rather, responsibilities are left to the 50 states. When compared with the U.S., experience in nations that have national ministries of education, e.g., Portugal, Korea, West Germany, Holland, England, Egypt, Japan, Korea, Tanzania and Uganda, makes cognizant the impact of such a fundamental difference in governmental practice. One may examine any aspect of public education, such as school curriculum, finance or administration, for example, and the impact of American decentralization is immediately noticeable.

One area in which the decentralized American system is significantly different from that of other nations is licensing teachers. While many consider decentralization, and consequent diversity, to be a strength, historical differences in teacher licensing have led to numerous attempts to obtain a high level of comparability in teacher qualifications.

Most noticeable in this regard are the impact of NCATE, NASDTEC, and the Carnegie Consortium. The effects of American diversity have been both positive and confusing. Recent national concern for the overall quality of American public education and attention to the separate public education efforts in each of the 50 states has resulted in many recommendations aimed at improving the entry-level qualifications of teachers.

What has been the impact of recommendations that teacher certification/licensure be changed? The following research project was completed as one means of addressing this question.

Research Project

The research was limited to the examination of two areas. The goals of the project were:

1. To identify significant issues in teacher certification/licensure practices in the United States.

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2. To document present practices and continuing issues.

A review of prior research and an analysis of the professional literature was initiated as a first step. With data from the review and analysis as a foundation, a series of interviews was conducted. Numerous professionals were interviewed, including the following:

Dr. David Imig, *Executive Director, American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education*
Dr. Barbara Burch, *Associate Dean, Memphis State University*
Dr. Richard Kunkel, *Executive Director, National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education*
Dr. Marjorie Pike, *Special Assistant to the Commissioner of Education, State of Tennessee*
Dr. Donna Gollnick, *Associate Executive Director, National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education*
Dr. Dennis Flenekin, *Dean, College of Education, Arkansas Tech University*
Dr. John McLevie, *California Commission for Teacher Education*
Dr. Shari Frances, *National Education Association*
Mr. George Stucky, *Indiana Department of Education*

This information thus obtained was categorized, synthesized, and used as the basis for developing the research instrument used in this project.

Following critical review by fellow researchers at Ball State University and pilot testing the instrument with personnel from two state certification offices, the research instrument was prepared for distribution. Each certification/licensing agency in the 50 states and the District of Columbia, the Virgin Islands, and Puerto Rico was invited to participate in the research project. The final number of responses was 51 which represents 96% of the credentialing agencies. Forty-nine states returned a completed instrument.* Such a high return may be indicative of the significance that state certification/licensing authorities placed on this research project.

Findings and Discussion

Each state controls its own regulations, and it was found that several different agencies and individuals are responsible for certification/licensing. Table 1 shows that about 82% of the respondents identified either the State Board of Education or the State Department of Education as the agency responsible for teacher certification/licensing. Table 2 contains the state-by-state responses regarding specific placement of responsibility for certification/licensure.

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* One state, Maryland, failed to respond in time to be included in the analysis. Responses from Washington, D.C. and the Virgin Islands are included with responses from the other 49 states.

Table 1. Government Agency Responsible for Teacher Certification/Licensing (N = 51)

Agency	N	%
State Board of Education	16	31.4
State Department of Education	13	25.5
State Superintendent of Public Instruction	4	7.8
Department of Teacher Certification	13	25.5
Teacher Credentialing Board	4	7.8
Other	1	2.0
Total	51	100.0

It is often contented that similarities have developed in the United States in the legal requirements associated with public schools, including teacher certification/licensing. Responses to several items on the research instrument support that contention. Table 3 identifies areas in which a large majority of the states reported common practices.

There can be no doubt that generally accepted patterns have emerged in many aspects of the procedures used to approve the colleges and universities which prepare teachers. Even so, certification officials reported that significant changes had been made in the last five years.

In addition, responses very clearly suggest that the state level personnel who are responsible for teacher certification believe that important changes in teacher certification requirements have been made in their states within the past five years. Only two respondents, Alaska and Idaho, indicated that no changes had been implemented in their certification/licensing requirements in the last five years. Of the 96% who indicated change, 37 of them (77%) considered the changes to be very significant. Only two states reported that actual changes were of limited significance. The remaining 18.8% of the respondents considered changes of moderate significance.

Lest the reader conclude that there were no areas in which state certification agencies differ, however, the research data also revealed several areas in which practices differed. Table 4 summarizes the differences.

When the specific comments that were made by individual respondents were reviewed, it was discovered that the size of the visitation team was over six members 81% of the time. However, the size of the institution and the number and levels of the programs offered determined the actual number of persons on the visitation teams in 15 states (36%).

Table 2. Government Agency Responsible for Teacher Certification/Licensing: Individual State Responses

State	State Board of Education	State Dept. of Education	State Superintendent of Schools	Department of Teacher Certification	Teacher Credentialling Board	Other
Alabama		x				
Alaska	x					
Arizona	x					
Arkansas			x			
California				x		
Colorado			x			
Connecticut		x				
Delaware		x				
District of Columbia						x
Florida		x				
Georgia	x					
Hawaii		x				
Idaho				x		
Illinois	x					
Indiana			x			
Iowa	x					
Kansas	x					
Kentucky				x		
Louisiana	x					
Maine		x				
Maryland						

(table continues)

Table 2. Government Agency Responsible for Teacher Certification/Licensing: Individual State Responses (cont.)

State	State Board of Education	State Dept. of Education	State Superintendent of Schools	Department of Teacher Certification	Teacher Credentialling Board	Other
Massachusetts				x		
Michigan					x	
Minnesota					x	
Mississippi	x					
Missouri	x					
Montana				x		
Nebraska		x				
Nevada		x				
New Hampshire	x					
New Jersey			x			
New Mexico	x					
New York		x				
North Carolina				x		
North Dakota			x			
Ohio	x					
Oklahoma				x		
Oregon					x	
Pennsylvania				x		
Rhode Island				x		
South Carolina				x		
South Dakota		x				

(table continues)

Table 2. Government Agency Responsible for Teacher Certification/Licensing: Individual State Responses (cont.)

State	State Board of Education	State Dept. of Education	State Superintendent of Schools	Department of Teacher Certification	Teacher Credentialling Board	Other
Tennessee				x		
Texas		x				
Utah		x				
Vermont	x					
Virgin Islands	x					
Virginia						
Washington			x			
West Virginia		x				
Wisconsin			x			
Wyoming	x					

Table 3. Areas of Common State Practice in Teacher Certification

	Majority Practice	Percentage of Respondents
Age of Certification Agency	Over 10 Years	100%
Basis for Institutional Approval	Program Approval	92%
What Colleges and Universities Must Gain Approval	All Schools Private and Public Must Gain Approval	88%
Use of a Campus Examination Team	Yes	94%
Frequency of Institutional Approval	Every 5 Years	90%
Changes in Certification/Approval Requirements	Very Significant	74%
	Moderately Significant	18%
	Limited Significance	47%
	None	4%

Table 4. Areas in Which Differences in Practice Were Reported by Participating States

Area	Identified Practices	Percentage
Size of the Visitation Team	2-6 Members	19%
	7-10 Members	10%
	Over 10 Members	36%
	Number and levels of programs determine team size)	36%
Duration of the Campus Visit	1 Day	9%
	2 Days	57%
	3 Days	14%
	4 Days	19%
Teacher Education Support for Certification Changes	Very Supportive	45%
	Accepted	53%
	Strongly Opposed	2%
Alternate Routes to Certification	Yes	52%
	No	48%
Pressure for Alternatives to Certification	Very Much	12%
	Some	39%
	None59%	

Fewer than half (45%) of the teacher education specialists were judged by the state certification directors to have been very supportive of the recent changes made in their states. In most instances, the full responsibility for implementing the legislated changes in licensing requirements falls upon the institutions of higher education and the teacher education specialists who must offer the approved programs. One might wonder what is implied by the fact that 53% of the certification directors believed that the teacher education specialists in their states had accepted the changes rather than to have been very supportive of them.

The matter of alternative avenues to teacher licensure has been much discussed in recent years. The data obtained in this research indicate that there is considerable difference in the definitions used by the respondents. Many cited short-term temporary licenses as an alternate; others noted that emergency licenses in areas such as special education were their only alternate licenses. In a few instances, general shortages in some metropolitan areas have been addressed by permitting individuals with less than

full credentials to enter the classroom, and these emergency actions were reported as alternatives. In almost every one of these examples, the individual teachers are expected to eliminate deficiencies and qualify for a full license. There are, of course, some states which do have fully supported alternatives to regular certification.

Slightly less than half (48%) of the states reported that they now provide no alternatives. The certification directors in these states were asked about the pressures which were being placed to effect some type of alternative route to teaching. Roughly 60% reported no pressure, 28% said some pressure and only 11% indicated that there was very much pressure.

Possible Relationships

The two variables, region and state population, were chosen as possible contributors to differences. In most instances, as was reported, there were found to be few items in which the reported data differed greatly. Given a lack of difference, there was limited possibility for extensive statistical analysis. In the few instances in which differences did occur, the data were examined using the Chi Square technique and an analysis of variance (ANOVA).

In no instance was a significant difference among responses found to exist. Considerable homogeneity of practice does indeed exist. The basis for present differences appears to be highly individualized and seems to have resulted from a combination of prior practice and immediate changes implemented in each state. In the judgment of this researcher, such agencies as NASDTEC and NCATE continue to have an important impact upon the actions in the certifying agencies. It may well be that the high degree of similarity found in this study is a result of increased national concern for teacher education. The important role played by the de facto standards imposed by the several agencies and associations whose primary reason for being is the improvement and strengthening of America's schools and the teachers is pervasive and powerful.

There is considerable similarity in certification, program approval, institutional approval processes, criteria, and expectations throughout the United States. In spite of the many differences in public school systems, the importance of quality teachers has contributed to the powerful universal expectation that all teachers be well prepared. The existence of such similarity in practices should not, however, lead to complacency, for there remains much concern throughout the nation over the national level of teacher performance. Let us all pledge to cooperate in efforts to improve the quality of education in the United States by contributing to efforts designed to sharpen and to increase the requirements of those who would accept and earn membership in the teaching profession.

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